

Figure 1: MTurk interface

We start by thanking all reviewers for the careful consideration of the paper and the many suggestions for improvement. All the excellent suggestions regarding writing or presentation will be implemented in the revised version. Below, we address the comments that motivated further experiments or, in our viewpoint, required further clarification. **R1.p-u, R1.2, R1.6**) All these points will be corrected in the new version. We note that our intention was not to hide the limitations of the

approach (see reply to **R4** for more details).

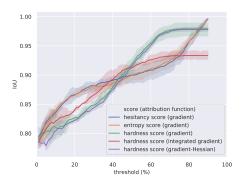


Figure 2: Robustness to shifts on CUB200.

Score (attribution function)	ρ	p-value
hesitancy score(gradient)	0.58(0.06)	5e-8(7e-8)
entropy score(gradient)	0.38(0.11)	8e-3(1e-2)
hardness score(gradient)	0.65(0.05)	7e-12(6e-12)
hardness score(integrated gradient)	0.65(0.07)	6e-10(9e-10)
hardness score(gradient-Hessian)	0.69(0.06)	9e-12(7e-12)

Table 1: Pearson correlation coefficient (ρ) and p-value (mean(stddev)) on CUB200.

R1.1) The two approaches have different motivations. Contrastive explanations seek regions or language descriptions explaining why an image does not belong to a counter-class. Deliberative explanations seek insecurities, i.e. the regions that make it difficult for the model to reach its prediction. To produce *an explanation*, contrastive methods only need to consider two *pre-specified* classes (predicted and counter), deliberative explanations must consider *all* classes and determine the ambiguous pair *for each region*. Comparing specifically to the Hendricks paper, it extracts a set of noun phrases from the counter-class and filters them with an evidence checker. Since phrases are defined by attributes, this boils down to detecting presence/absence of attributes in the image. Attribute annotation is needed for training. Deliberative explanations require characterizing the uncertainty of classification in every image region. They do not require attribute annotations, which are only needed for performance evaluation.

R1.3) We performed a preliminary human evaluation on MTurk, using the interface of Figure 1. Given an insecurity (\mathbf{r}, a, b) found by the explanation algorithm, turkers were shown \mathbf{r} and asked to identify (a, b) among 5 classes (for which a random image was displayed): the two classes a and b found by the algorithm and 3 other random classes. Turkers agreed amongst themselves on a and b for 59.4% of the insecurities and 33.7% of randomly cropped regions. Turkers agreed with the algorithm for 51.9% of the insecurities and 26.3% of the random crops. This shows that 1) insecurities are much more predictive of the ambiguities sensed by humans, and 2) the algorithm predicts those ambiguities quite well. In both cases, the "Don't know" rate was around 12%.

R1.4) The importance of insecurity (\mathbf{r}, a, b) was defined as $\frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}|} \sum_{i,j \in \mathbf{r}} m_{i,j}^{(a,b)}$. To determine how insecurities contribute to prediction, we measured the Pearson correlation coefficient ρ between this score and insecurity precision defined in Section 4. Table 1 shows a strong positive correlation for non-self-referential scores and a moderate one for self-referential ones.

R1.5) Test images were randomly translated by 1 to 5 pixels and insecurities compared to those without translation. The similarity between two insecurities of ambiguities (a,b) was then measured by the IoU metric, $\frac{|\{i|\mathbf{p}_i\in\mathbf{r},a_i=a,b_i=b\}\cap\{i|\mathbf{p}_i\in\mathbf{r}',a_i=a,b_i=b\}|}{|\{i|\mathbf{p}_i\in\mathbf{r},a_i=a,b_i=b\}\cup\{i|\mathbf{p}_i\in\mathbf{r}',a_i=a,b_i=b\}|}, \text{ where } \mathbf{p}_i \text{ is as defined in Section 4. The average IoU across all ambiguities and examples is shown in Figure 2 as a function of the threshold <math>T$ of L172. The average IoU was almost always above 80%, which is a fairly high value. This suggests that insecurities are quite robust to image shifts.

R2) Fig. 1: insecurities are generated by our method. Tab 1, section 3: Fig. 2 (right) confirms the improvements of second-order attributions. [1] (published after NeurIPS deadline, will be cited) found experimentally that gains of second-order term decrease as the number of classes increases. This could explain why gains on ADE20K (>1000 categories) are smaller than on CUB200 (200 categories).

R4) Note that we do not need strong annotations for training, only class labels. The strong annotations (parts and attributes on CUB200, segmentation masks on ADE20K) are just needed to evaluate explanation performance, i.e. on the test set (see, e.g., footnote 1). Hence, the requirement for annotations is a limitation but only for the *evaluation* of deliberative explanation methods, not for their *use* by practitioners. Furthermore, it enables *reproducible* evaluation, which is not always the case for explanation methods.

[1] Singla, Sahil, et al. Understanding Impacts of High-Order Loss Approximations and Features in Deep Learning Interpretation. ICML, 2019.